



¹ Understanding the Optical Properties of Ambient

² Sub- and Supermicron Particulate Matter: Results from

the CARES 2010 Field Study in Northern California

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13 Short Summary

One way in which particles impact the solar radiation budget is through absorption and scattering of solar radiation. Here, we report on measurements of aerosol optical properties at visible wavelengths in the Sacramento, CA region and characterize their relationships with and dependence upon particle composition, particle size, photochemical ageing, water uptake and heating.

18 Abstract

Measurements of the optical properties (absorption, scattering and extinction) of PM₁, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ made at two sites around Sacramento, CA during the June 2010 Carbonaceous Aerosols and Radiative Effects Study (CARES) are reported. These observations are used to establish relationships





22 between various intensive optical properties and to derive information about the dependence of the optical 23 properties on photochemical ageing and sources. Supermicron particles contributed substantially to the 24 total light scattering at both sites, about 50% on average. A strong, linear relationship is observed between 25 the scattering Ångstrom exponent for PM_{10} and the fraction of the scattering that is contributed by submicron particles ($f_{sca,PM1}$) at both sites and with similar slopes and intercepts (for a given pair of 26 27 wavelengths), suggesting that the derived relationship may be generally applicable for understanding 28 variations in particle size distributions from remote sensing measurements. At the more urban T0 site, the 29 $f_{sca,PM1}$ increased with photochemical age whereas at the downwind, more rural T1 site the $f_{sca,PM1}$ decreased slightly with photochemical age. This difference in behavior reflects differences in transport, 30 31 local production and local emission of supermicron particles between the sites. Light absorption is 32 dominated by submicron particles, but the there is some absorption by supermicron particles (~15% of 33 the total). The supermicron absorption derives from a combination of black carbon that has penetrated 34 into the supermicron mode and from dust, and there is a clear increase in the mass absorption coefficient 35 of just the supermicron particles with increasing average particle size. The mass scattering coefficient (MSC) for the supermicron particles was directly observed to vary inversely with the average particle 36 37 size, demonstrating that MSC cannot always be treated as a constant in estimating mass concentrations 38 from scattering measurements, or vice versa. The total particle backscatter fraction exhibited some 39 dependence upon the relative abundance of sub- versus supermicron particles, however this was 40 modulated by variations in the median size of particles within a given size range; variations in the 41 submicron size distribution had a particularly large influence on the observed backscatter efficiency and an approximate method to account for this variability is introduced. The relationship between the 42 43 absorption and scattering Ångstrom exponents is examined and used to update a previously suggested 44 particle classification scheme. Differences in composition led to differences in the sensitivity of PM2.5 to 45 heating in a thermodenuder to the average particle size, with more extensive evaporation (observed as a 46 larger decrease in the $PM_{2.5}$ extinction coefficient) corresponding to smaller particles, i.e. submicron 47 particles were generally more susceptible to heating than the supermicron particles. The influence of 48 heating on the particle hygroscopicity varied with the effective particle size, with larger changes observed 49 when the PM_{2.5} distribution was dominated by smaller particles.





51 **1. Introduction**

52 Atmospheric aerosol particles impact regional and global climate by scattering and absorbing solar 53 radiation, as well as by affecting the properties of clouds, although the magnitude of these impacts remain 54 uncertain (IPCC, 2013). The specific ability of particles to interact with solar radiation is dependent upon 55 particle size, morphology and composition (Bohren and Huffman, 1983), which are often linked through 56 variations in sources and chemical processing. Atmospheric particles span a wide range of sizes, from just 57 a few nm to many microns. Quantitative understanding of the absolute and relative contributions across 58 this entire size range is necessary to assess their climate impacts (Schwartz, 1996). The major sources of 59 particles within the submicron and supermicron size regimes differ, with submicron particles generally 60 deriving from combustion emissions and secondary formation and supermicron particles generally coming from mechanical action (e.g. wind-blown dust or ocean wave breaking) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 61 62 1998). As such, particle composition varies across this size range, as does the effectiveness with which 63 particles absorb and scatter solar radiation. In situ measurements of the wavelength- and size-dependent 64 light scattering and absorption properties of ambient atmospheric particles made concurrent with 65 measurements of the size-dependent particle composition can provide insights into the impacts of particles on local climate and air quality (Anderson et al., 2003; Jung et al., 2009), as well as into the more general 66 67 relationships between particle size, composition and radiative effects that determine their global impacts 68 (Quinn et al., 2004; Bates et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2007; Garland et al., 2008; Gyawali et al., 2009; Yang 69 et al., 2009). Such in situ measurements can help to interpret observations from remote sensing (Russell 70 et al., 2010; Giles et al., 2012) and to provide observational constraints for results from simulations using 71 regional and global models (Kaufman et al., 2002; Myhre et al., 2012; Tsigaridis et al., 2014).

72 The US Department of Energy Carbonaceous Aerosols and Radiative Effects Study (CARES) took 73 place in June 2010 with a motivation of improving our understanding of aerosol optical properties and 74 how they evolve in the atmosphere through observations (Zaveri et al., 2012). Two heavily-instrumented 75 ground observational sites were set up, one within the greater Sacramento, CA urban area and one 76 approximately 40 km to the northeast in much more rural Cool, CA (Figure S1). At both sites a variety of 77 aerosol particle physical, chemical and optical property measurements were made. These two sites were 78 chosen because of the generally reproducible wind patterns that, much of the time, bring air up from the 79 San Francisco Bay Area (~100 mi SW) and past the Sacramento urban core before continuing up towards 80 the foothills of the Sierra Nevada mountains where the air mass accumulates biogenic emissions during 81 the day, with a reversed flow at night bringing more biogenically influenced air down from the mountains. 82 In this way, comparison between the two sites facilitates understanding of the role that atmospheric





83 photochemical processing plays in altering particle optical properties. Results from measurements of dry 84 particle light scattering and absorption made for submicron particulate matter (PM₁) and for PM smaller than 10 μ m (PM₁₀) at both sites and of dry particle light absorption and extinction for PM smaller than 85 2.5 μ m (PM_{2.5}) at just the urban Sacramento site are reported in this study. The separate PM₁ and PM₁₀ 86 87 measurements allows for determination of the optical properties of both submicron and supermicron (PM 88 $> 1 \mu$ m) particles. The distinct sub- and supermicron measurements are used here to characterize and 89 examine the variability in their relative contributions as well as the differences between their properties 90 and sources in the summertime Sacramento region. These regional results are also used to develop more 91 general understanding of the size- and composition-dependent variability in aerosol particle optical 92 properties. The analysis here focuses especially on quantifying and assessing the relationships between 93 various intensive optical parameters (such as the scattering Ångstrom exponent, the absorption Ångstrom 94 exponent, and the single scatter albedo) or between these parameters and characteristics of the particle 95 distribution (such as the fine mode fraction or characteristic particle diameter) and how these differ 96 between size ranges (sub- versus supermicron) or are influenced by photochemical ageing or heating.

2. Experimental 97

98 All measurements were made during the 2010 CARES study, which took place in the Sacramento, 99 CA region from 2-29 June, 2010. Measurements were made at one of two sites: one located in the greater Sacramento urban region (termed the T0 site) and one located ca. 40 km northeast downwind in Cool, CA 100 101 (termed the T1 site), shown in Figure S1. The CARES study has previously been described in detail (Fast 102 et al., 2012; Zaveri et al., 2012), and only a brief overview is given here. A list of instrumentation used in 103 this study is given in Table 1.

104

2.1 Measurements at the T0 Site

105 Particle light absorption coefficients (b_{abs}) were measured using the UC Davis (UCD) photoacoustic spectrometer (PAS) at 405 nm and 532 nm (Lack et al., 2012) and using a particle soot absorption 106 photometer (PSAP; Radiance Research, Inc.) at 470 nm, 532 nm and 660 nm (Bond et al., 1999; Virkkula 107 108 et al., 2005). The PAS measured light absorption for PM_{2.5} sampled through a cyclone, alternating on a 109 2.5 or 5 minute time scale between bypass measurements (i.e. dried ambient particles) and measurements 110 behind a constant-temperature (225°C) thermodenuder (Huffman et al., 2008; Cappa et al., 2012) with a 111 residence time of 5 s. The PAS was calibrated before, during and after the study by referencing the 112 observed photoacoustic response to added ozone to the extinction measured at the same wavelengths via cavity ringdown spectroscopy (CRDS) (Lack et al., 2012). The PSAP measured b_{abs} for PM₁ or PM₁₀ on 113





114 an alternating 6 minute cycle. The PSAP was corrected for spot size, flow and particle scattering using 115 standard methods (Bond et al., 1999; Ogren, 2010). Light scattering and backscattering coefficients (b_{sca} 116 and b_{bsca} , respectively) were measured for dried particles using a three-wavelength total/backscatter 117 nephelometer (TSI, Model 3563) at 450 nm, 550 nm and 700 nm. The nephelometer sampled PM1 and PM_{10} on the same alternating 6 minute cycle as the PSAP. The b_{sca} and b_{bsca} were corrected for truncation 118 119 error (Anderson and Ogren, 1998). Light extinction coefficients ($b_{ext} = b_{abs} + b_{sca}$) were directly measured 120 for PM_{2.5} using the UCD aerosol CRDS (Langridge et al., 2011; Cappa et al., 2012). The b_{ext} were 121 measured for dried particles at both 405 nm and 532 nm, and at 532 nm measurements were additionally 122 made for particles exposed to elevated RH (~85%). As with the UCD PAS, the CRDS operated behind a 123 thermodenuder on a 2.5 or 5 minute cycle. PSAP and nephelometer measurements were made over the 124 period 3-28 June, 2010, with a data gap from the period 16-20 June. The CRD measurements and PAS 125 measurements at 405 nm were made starting 20:00 PDT on 16 June through 09:00 PDT on 29 June. Due 126 to a laser malfunction, the PAS measurements at 532 nm started at 12:00 PDT on 19 June. The 127 thermodenuder measurements began at 12:00 PDT on 20 June.

128 Particle mobility diameter $(d_{p,m})$ size distributions from 12.2 to 736.5 nm were measured using a 129 scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS). Particle aerodynamic diameter $(d_{\rm p,a})$ size distributions from 542 130 nm to 19,810 nm were measured using an aerodynamic particle sizer (APS). The APS size distributions were converted to mobility-equivalent size distributions, assuming spherical particles and a particle 131 material density of 2.0 g cm⁻³ and accounting for the Cunningham slip correction. The use of a material 132 133 density of 2.0 g cm⁻³ implicitly assumes that the larger particles characterized by the APS were primarily 134 dust or sea spray. The resulting APS distribution was merged with the SMPS distribution to generate a 135 time-series of the mobility size distributions with sizes over the entire range (12.2-19.810 nm). Because 136 the PM₁, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ designations are associated with aerodynamic diameters, mobility equivalent 137 cut-diameters must be determined. The mobility equivalent cut-diameters are (assuming a density of 2 g 138 cm⁻³) 700 nm, 1750 nm and 7200 nm, respectively. (For simplicity, we will continue to refer to the sub 139 and supermicron particle ranges based on the aerodynamic size.) The merged size distribution was truncated to an upper limit of 7200 nm, and the campaign average for the T0 site is shown for reference 140 141 in Figure S2. One complication at the T0 site is that the APS did not collect data from 13:30 PDT on June 142 22 onwards, and thus information about the supermicron particle size distribution and mass concentrations 143 are not available after this date.

Particle composition was monitored at T0 using the single particle laser ablation time-of-flight mass
 spectrometer (SPLAT-II) from 3-28 June (Zelenyuk et al., 2009). SPLAT-II characterizes the composition





146 of individual particles and can be used to build a statistical picture of the distribution of particle types, as 147 defined by the uniqueness of and similarities between their mass spectra (Zelenyuk et al., 2008). Analysis 148 of the single particle mass spectra from SPLAT-II indicate a diversity of particle types, including dust, 149 sea salt-containing (SS), combustion derived (including particles categorized as soot, biomass burning 150 (BB), primary organic (POA) and hydrocarbon (HC)), amine-containing, and mixed sulfate/organic. 151 SPLAT-II samples particles between ~50 nm and 2 µm, although the sampling efficiency varies with particle size and with particle shape. SPLAT-II is optimized for particles with vacuum aerodynamic 152 diameters (d_{va}) between 100 and 600 nm, and detects larger particles with reduced relative efficiency. 153

154 Non-refractory submicron particle matter (NR-PM) composition was measured using an Aerodyne 155 high resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-AMS) (Canagaratna et al., 2007). The NR-156 PM components measured include organics, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium and chloride. Data during the first 157 week of the campaign (June 3-12) are especially noisy due to instrumental problems. The AMS data were 158 processed and NR-PM concentrations determined using standard methods, assuming a collection 159 efficiency of 50%. Positive matrix factorization was applied to the dataset (Zhang et al., 2011) and three factors associated with the organic aerosol (OA) were determined. One of these was characterized as a 160 161 more-oxidized OA factor (OOA) while two were characterized as less-oxidized OA factors, which will 162 be referred to here as the hydrocarbon-like OA factor (HOA) and were most likely cooking- and traffic-163 related (Atkinson et al., 2015). Black carbon mass concentrations were measured with a single particle 164 soot photometer (SP2; DMT) (Schwarz et al., 2006). The SP2 was calibrated using mobility size selected 165 Aquadag particles, using a size-dependent particle density (Gysel et al., 2011). The reported 166 concentrations have been multiplied by a factor of 1.53 to account for the difference in sensitivity of the 167 SP2 to Aquadag compared with fullerene soot (R. Subramanian, Personal Communication), which is 168 thought to be a reasonable proxy for diesel soot (Laborde et al., 2012a). The CARES SP2 instruments 169 measured BC-containing particles with volume equivalent core diameters between 30 and 400 nm, 170 although quantification below $d_{p,ved} < 100$ nm becomes generally more challenging and can vary between 171 instruments (Laborde et al., 2012b). No adjustment of the reported concentrations for black carbon 172 containing particles outside of the SP2 detection size range has been made, thus the reported 173 concentrations may be underestimated (Cappa et al., 2014).

Gas-phase concentrations of the sum of NO and NO_2 (= NO_x) and the sum of nitrogen oxides (= NO_y) were measured using a 2-channel chemiluminescence instrument (Air Quality Design, Inc.) in which NO₂ is photolyzed to NO and NO_y is converted to NO on a Mo catalyst. Gas-phase concentrations of hydrocarbons, in particular of toluene and benzene, were measured using a proton transfer reaction mass





spectrometer (PTR-MS). These measurements can be used to estimate the average photochemical age
(*PCA*) of the air mass (Roberts et al., 1984), with:

180

181
$$PCA_{NOx} = -\frac{1}{k_{rxn}[OH]} \ln\left(\frac{[NO_x]}{[NO_y]}\right)$$
(1)

182 where k_{rxn} is the reaction rate coefficient for the OH + NO₂ reaction (7.9 x 10⁻¹² cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻¹; 183 (Brown et al., 1999)), and

184

185
$$PCA_{HC} = \frac{\ln(ER) - \ln\left(\frac{[benzene]}{[toluene]}\right)}{(k_b - k_t)[OH]}$$
(2)

186

where *ER* is the emission ratio between benzene and toluene, assumed here to be 3.2 (Warneke et al., 2007), and k_b and k_t are the reaction rate coefficients for reaction of benzene (1 x 10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) and toluene (5.7 x 10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) with OH, respectively (Atkinson et al., 2006). Although there are challenges in interpreting *PCA* estimates quantitatively due to e.g. mixing of different sources (Parrish et al., 2007) and weekend/weekday differences (Warneke et al., 2013), *PCA* nonetheless provides a useful estimate of the extent of photochemical processing.

193 **2.2. Measurements at the T1 Site**

A similar suite of measurements were made at the T1 site as at the T0 site, including light absorption 194 195 at 470, 532, 660 nm by PSAP, light scattering at 450, 550, 700 nm by nephelometer, particle size by 196 SMPS and APS and submicron particle composition by HR-AMS and SP2. The SMPS deployed at T1 197 measures particle number distribution in the range of 10-858 nm in $d_{p.m}$. Analysis of the HR-AMS data using positive matrix factorization identified two distinct OOA factors, one of which was mainly 198 199 associated with biogenic emissions and the other representative of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) 200 formed in photochemically processed urban emissions. HOA was also observed at T1 but it on average 201 accounted for only ~10% of the OA mass. Details on HR-AMS and SMPS measurements at T1 and 202 associated data analysis are given in (Setyan et al., 2012; Setyan et al., 2014). The particle scattering and 203 absorption measurements were made nearly continuously from 3-28 June, 2010. Light absorption 204 measurements were also made using different PAS instruments, although these are not utilized here. 205 PTR-MS measurements of toluene and benzene are available from 3-28 June, 2010. Although NO and





NO_y measurements were made, NO_x was not measured. Thus, it is only possible to estimate *PCA* at the T1 site using the benzene-toluene method (Equation 2).

208 One additional way in which particle composition was characterized at T1 was with a particle 209 ablation laser-desorption mass spectrometer (PALMS) (Cziczo et al., 2006). The PALMS is similar to the 210 SPLAT-II in that single particle mass spectra are collected for particles between about $d_{p,a}$ 150 nm and 2 μm, which are used to build a statistical picture of particle types. Analysis of the single particle mass 211 212 spectra from PALMS at the T1 site yielded the following particle types: dust (termed MinMet for mineralogical/meteoric), sea salt-containing (SS), combustion derived (including particles categorized as 213 214 soot, biomass burning (BB), or oil), mixed sulfate/organic and "other." Results from the PALMS measurements have been previously reported in Zaveri et al. (2012). 215

216 **2.3 Derived particle properties**

Using the alternating (i.e. sequential) PM₁ and PM₁₀ measurements, the properties of supermicron particles specifically have been estimated from the difference between PM₁₀ and PM₁, with

219
$$b_{x,super} = \frac{b_{x,PM10}(t-1) + b_{x,PM10}(t+1)}{2} - b_{x,PM1}(t)$$
 (3)

where *x* indicates absorption or scattering and where the *t* values indicate the average concentration over each 6 min averaging period (i.e. the PM_1 - PM_{10} cycle time). The fraction of absorption or scattering from PM_1 or supermicron PM is therefore defined as:

223
$$f_{x,PM1} = \frac{b_{x,PM1}}{b_{x,PM10}}$$
 (4a)

224
$$f_{x,super} = \frac{b_{x,super}}{b_{x,PM10}}$$
(4b)

where *x* again indicates absorption or scattering. These ratios give an indication of the contribution of submicron or supermicron particles to the total absorption or scattering, e.g. larger values of $f_{sca,PM1}$ indicate greater dominance of the submicron particle mode in terms of total scattering.

Light absorption measurements are used to determine the absorption Ångstrom exponent (*AAE*), which characterizes the wavelength dependence of absorption and is given as:

230
$$AAE_{\lambda 1,\lambda 2} = -\frac{\log\left(\frac{b_{abs,\lambda 1}}{b_{abs,\lambda 2}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{\lambda 1}{\lambda 2}\right)}$$
(5)





where $\lambda 1$ and $\lambda 2$ indicate different wavelengths. It is often assumed that "pure" black carbon (BC) particles have an *AAE* close to 1 and that values >1 indicate the presence of light absorbing organics (referred to as brown carbon, or BrC) or dust, which tend to exhibit absorption that increases sharply as wavelength decreases. The *AAE* is dependent upon the chosen wavelength pair. The specific wavelength pair used to calculate *AAE* will be indicated using the notation $AAE_{\lambda 1-\lambda 2}$. Related, the difference in the PM₁₀ and PM₁ AAE can be calculated:

$$237 \quad \Delta AAE_{10-1} = AAE_{PM10} - AAE_{PM1} \tag{6}$$

The scattering Ångstrom exponent (*SAE*) is also commonly used to characterize the relative contributions from sub- and supermicron particles, and is defined analogously to the *AAE* as:

240
$$SAE_{\lambda 1,\lambda 2} = -\frac{\log\left(\frac{b_{sca,\lambda 1}}{b_{sca,\lambda 2}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{\lambda 1}{\lambda 2}\right)}$$
 (7)

Larger values of the *SAE* correspond to overall smaller particles, and have been calculated for PM_1 , PM_{10} and PM_{super} . A similar parameter, the extinction Ångstrom exponent, *EAE*, can be calculated for $PM_{2.5}$ using the measured b_{ext} .

The fraction of extinction due to scattering is characterized through the single scatter albedo (SSA), which can be written in multiple ways depending on whether b_{ext} , b_{abs} or b_{sca} were the directly measured properties:

247
$$SSA = \frac{b_{ext} - b_{abs}}{b_{ext}} = \frac{b_{sca}}{b_{ext}} = \frac{b_{sca}}{b_{sca} + b_{abs}}$$
(8)

The angular dependence of scattering is characterized through measurement of the backscatter coefficients, b_{bsca} . The fraction of light that is backscattered, relative to the total scattering, is calculated as

$$251 f_{bsca} = \frac{b_{bsca}}{b_{sca}} (9)$$

The backscatter fraction is an important climate-relevant parameter as particle radiative effects depend in part on the extent to which incoming solar radiation is reflected back to space versus absorbed within the Earth system. The backscatter fraction is commonly converted to an asymmetry parameter, g_{sca} , and the empirically derived relationship between these is (Andrews et al., 2006):

256
$$g_{sca} = -7.143889 \cdot f_{bsca}^3 + 7.464439 \cdot f_{bsca}^2 - 3.9356 \cdot f_{bsca} + 0.9893$$
 (10)





The asymmetry parameter is the intensity-weighted average of the cosine of the scattering angle and ranges from -1 (all backscatter) to 1 (all forward scatter).

Using the measurements made behind the thermodenuder at the T0 site (i.e. the PAS and CRD measurements), various ratios and differences can be determined. The ratio between the denuded and undenuded extinction (i.e. the fraction of extinction remaining for PM_{2.5}) provides a measure of the particle volatility, with smaller values indicating more volatile particles:

263
$$f_{ext,TD} = \frac{b_{ext,TD}}{b_{ext,amb}} = \frac{b_{ext}(t-1) + b_{ext}(t+1)}{2b_{ext}(t)}$$
(11)

where *TD* indicates the thermodenuded and *amb* indicates the ambient time periods, and the 2^{nd} equality shows how the sequential TD and ambient measurements were accounted for similar to Eqn. 3. The change in particle hygroscopicity upon thermodenuding is calculated as

267
$$\Delta \gamma_{RH} = \gamma_{RH}(amb) - \gamma_{RH}(TD)$$
(12)

268 where

269
$$\gamma_{RH} = \log\left(\frac{b_{ext,high}}{b_{ext,low}}\right) / \log\left(\frac{100 - RH_{low}}{100 - RH_{high}}\right)$$
(13)

and the *high* and *low* refer to the humidified and dried CRD measurements and again accounting for the sequential nature of the *TD* and *amb* measurements. The parameter γ_{RH} can be thought of as the optical hygroscopicity (i.e. a measure of the affinity of particles towards water), although it does have some dependence on particle size and thus there is not a 1-to-1 relationship between γ_{RH} and particle hygroscopicity(Atkinson et al., 2015). In general, for a given amount of particle growth due to water uptake, γ_{RH} is larger for smaller particles.

276 The difference in the AAE between the ambient and thermodenuded states can also be determined:

$$277 \quad \Delta AAE_{amb-TD} = AAE_{amb} - AAE_{TD} \tag{14}$$

Mass absorption, scattering and extinction coefficients (*MAC*, *MSC* and *MEC*, respectively) have been
 calculated for the various wavelengths and PM size ranges. Using scattering as an example,

$$280 \quad MSC_X\left(\frac{m^2}{g}\right) = \frac{b_{sca}}{[X]} \tag{15}$$

281 where [X] is the mass concentration of the reference species of interest, such as BC or the total PM. In

the case of [BC], the SP2 measurements are used. For total PM, the integrated volume concentrations

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were used to estimate [PM], assuming spherical particles. For supermicron particles it was assumed that $\rho_p = 2.0 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ and for submicron particles the density was 1.3 g cm⁻³ (Setyan et al., 2012).

285 The size distributions have been used to calculate median surface-weighted particle diameters 286 $(d_{p,surf})$ as:

$$287 d_{p,surf} = \frac{\int_{d_{p,low}}^{d_{p,high}} d_p \cdot \frac{dN}{d\log d_p} d\log d_p}{\int_{d_{p,low}}^{d_{p,high}} \frac{dN}{d\log d_p} d\log d_p} (16)$$

where $dN/d\log d_p$ is the observed number-weighted size distribution over the size range of interest ($d_{p,low}$ to $d_{p,high}$). In this study, $d_{p,surf}$ values have been separately calculated for the total PM₁₀ distribution and for the supermicron particle range.

291 **3. Results and Discussion**

3.1 Size dependence of optical properties

3.1.1 Light scattering

294 Supermicron particles contributed substantially to the dry particle scattering at both T0 and T1 295 (Figure 1). The average $f_{sca,PM1}(550 \text{ nm})$ at T0 was 0.48 ± 0.17 (1 σ) and at T1 was 0.55 ± 0.16 (1 σ). (If 296 the time period where the scattering measurements were not available at T0 is excluded from the T1 297 average, the average $f_{sca,PM1}$ is 0.57 ± 0.15 (1 σ).) Thus, nearly 50% of the dry scattering at these two sites 298 was, on average, due to supermicron particles during the campaign period. This observation is consistent 299 with results from Kassianov et al. (2012), who calculated scattering and direct radiative forcing for these 300 two sites based on observed size distributions and concluded that supermicron particles contribute 301 substantially to the total scattering. Because scattering generally increases more rapidly with decreasing 302 wavelength for small particles, the $f_{sca,PM1}$ is larger for 450 nm (= 0.59 at T0 and 0.67 at T1) and smaller 303 for 700 nm (= 0.34 at T0 and 0.41 at T1) compared to 550 nm. The similarity of the $f_{sca,PM1}$ values between 304 the two sites is noteworthy given that the T0 site is situated much closer to urban Sacramento than is the 305 T1 site. The $f_{sca,PM1}$ values at the two sites show a strong, linear correlation with the SAE_{450,550} (Figure 306 2a,b), which is not entirely surprising since the SAE provides an indication of the mean, optically-307 weighted particle size. There is a similarly strong relationship with the SAE values calculated from the 308 other wavelength pairs (Figure S3 and Figure S4 show results for the T0 and T1 sites, respectively, for 309 comparison). The best fit from a one-sided linear fit to $SAE_{450,550}$ versus $f_{sca,PM1}$ at T0 is $SAE_{450,550} = 2.69$





310 $f_{\text{sca},550,\text{PM1}} - 0.05 \ (r^2 = 0.88)$ and at T1 is $SAE_{450,550} = 2.66 \ f_{\text{sca},550,\text{PM1}} + 0.06 \ (r^2 = 0.91)$. (Values for other 311 combinations of wavelengths for T0 and T1 are reported in Table S1.)

312 Although the SAE values exhibit a linear relationship with $f_{sca,PM1}$, they exhibit a more complex 313 relationship with the median surface-area weighted particle diameter of the entire distribution ($d_{p,surf,PM10}$). 314 Although the SAE values generally decrease with increasing $d_{p,surf,PM10}$, as one might expect since an 315 increase in d_{p.surf.PM10} presumably corresponds to an increase in the supermicron fraction of scattering, 316 there is much greater scatter compared to the clear relationship with $f_{sca,PM1}$, and clear periods when a monotonic relationship is not observed (Figure 2c,d). The derived $d_{p,surf,PM10}$ values are sensitive to the 317 318 exact shapes of the sub- and supermicron modes, and the MSC for supermicron particles, in particular, is 319 also sensitive to the shape of the supermicron size distribution (discussed further below in Section 3.1.2). 320 Consequently, there is not a straight-forward relationship between the SAE and $d_{p,surf,PM10}$ and the SAE cannot be used to predict average properties of the overall sub- plus supermicron size distribution. 321 322 However, the strong, linear relationship between the SAE and $f_{sca,PM1}$ and the close correspondence 323 between the two sites, despite apparent variations in the underlying size distributions, suggests that the 324 relationships derived here may be sufficiently general to be applied in other locations, although this needs 325 to be verified. This in turn indicates that observations of SAE can be used to quantitatively estimate the 326 fractional contribution of sub and supermicron particles to the total scattering with an uncertainty of ~15% 327 based on the spread in the data. Thus, the relationships derived here may be useful for application or 328 comparison with remote sensing methods, such as the AERONET sun photometer network (Schuster et 329 al., 2006) or satellites (Ginoux et al., 2012).

330 One factor that can influence the sub-versus supermicron contributions to the total scattering is the 331 extent of photochemical processing. Photochemical processing leads to the production of condensable 332 material that will tend to condense according to the particle Fuchs-corrected surface area. As such, photochemical processing and secondary PM formation, especially SOA, will lead to preferential growth 333 334 of the submicron mode diameters (which grow more for a given amount of material condensed) and will 335 lead to an increase in the submicron scattering in particular. The $f_{sca,PM1}$ at T0 exhibits a general increase with PCA (characterized by the $[NO_x]/[NO_v]$ and/or [benzene]/[toluene] ratios), although there is a fair 336 337 amount of scatter at low photochemical age (Figure 3a,b). The $f_{sca.PM1}$ at T1 shows completely different behavior, with $f_{sca,PM1}$ exhibiting very little dependence on PCA, although there is possibly a slight 338 339 decrease (Figure 3c). There is generally good correspondence between the $[NO_x]/[NO_y]$ and 340 [benzene]/[toluene] ratios measured at T0, indicating that the different results at T1 are unlikely to result 341 from use of a particular PCA marker (Figure 3d). The PCA at T1 is on average much larger than at T0.





342 The PCA at the T0 site exhibits a clear peak around 15:00 PDT (Figure 3e). The PCA diel profile at T1 343 is comparably much broader and exhibits a less-pronounced peak, but that also occurs in the late afternoon 344 (around 16:00 PDT) (Figure 3e). This broadening and different temporal dependence likely reflects the 345 downwind location of the T1 site and the general flow patterns in this region (Fast et al., 2012). It seems 346 likely that the difference in variation of the $f_{sca,PM1}$ with PCA between the two sites is related to these 347 difference. At T0, the measured $b_{sca,PM1}$ may reflect a relatively local production of submicron particulate 348 mass whereas at T1 the $b_{sca,PM1}$ is more reflective of regional conditions. The $b_{sca,super}$ at both sites will 349 have some regional contribution (in particular sea spray), but also a strong local contribution. Wind speeds were typically largest in the mid- to late afternoon at both sites, although overall the diel behavior was 350 351 much clearer at T1 than at T0 and with a larger amplitude (Figure 3e). However, the wind speeds were on 352 average larger at T0. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that local emission of supermicron 353 particulates, possibly re-suspended road dust or from agricultural sources, in the afternoon at T1 354 counteracts the influence of growth of the regional submicron particulates, leading $f_{sca,PM1}$ to be nearly 355 independent of PCA at this site. In contrast, at T0 the local photochemical production of new submicron 356 PM mass appears to be sufficiently strong to lead to an increase in $f_{sca,PM1}$ with PCA.

357 3.1.2 Light absorption

358 Light absorption at both sites was dominated by submicron particles, although a small fraction may 359 also be from supermicron particles (Figure 1). The average $f_{abs,PM1}$ at 532 nm at T0 was 0.89 ± 0.14 (1 σ) 360 and at T1 was 0.85 ± 0.17 (1 σ). At T1 there is a slight indication that $f_{abs,super}$ decreased as $f_{sca,super}$ 361 decreased, but no such relationship is clearly evident at T0 (Figure 1g-h). Such potential relationships must be viewed with some amount of caution, as the PSAP requires correction for particle scattering and 362 the extent of forward versus backward scattering is particle size dependent. It is also known that the PSAP 363 364 shows an additional sensitivity to particle size due to differences in the depth of penetration of particles 365 into the filter (Nakayama et al., 2010), which might influence the measurements here.

366 That light absorption is dominated by submicron particles suggests that black carbon, and possibly brown carbon, make up the majority of the light absorbing particle burden. The AAE_{PM1} values at both T0 367 and T1 exhibit reasonably normal distributions (Figure 4). The spread at T0 was substantially smaller than 368 369 at T1. The average AAE_{PM1} values are slightly larger than unity at both sites $(1.21 \pm 0.13 \text{ and } 1.33 \pm 0.22)$ 370 for T0 and T1, respectively, where uncertainties are 1 standard deviation; Table 2), and do not show any 371 pronounced dependence on the wavelength pair chosen. Black carbon is typically thought to have an AAE 372 close to unity (Cross et al., 2010). The average $PM_1AAE_{PM1,450-532}$ are identical between the sites, whereas 373 the $AAE_{PM1,450-660}$ and $AAE_{PM1,532-660}$ are slightly larger at T1. The larger spread in the AAE_{PM1} values for





374 all wavelength pairs at T1 suggests that the two PSAP instruments were not entirely identical and had 375 somewhat different noise characteristics, making it difficult to establish whether these small differences 376 are real. One method that has been used to estimate the contribution of brown carbon relative to black 377 carbon is to extrapolate the observed b_{abs} at longer λ (e.g. 660 nm) to shorter wavelengths assuming that 378 AAE = 1 and that absorption by brown carbon at long λ is zero (Gyawali et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2009; 379 Chung et al., 2012; Lack and Langridge, 2013). To the extent that this method is appropriate, and some 380 have argued it may not be (Lack and Langridge, 2013), it provides an estimate of b_{abs} for pure BC 381 (assuming that $AAE_{BC} = 1$ exactly) and the contribution from brown carbon can then be estimated by 382 subtracting the pure BC b_{abs} from the total. Given the observed AAE_{PM1} values, this spectral differencing 383 method suggests that brown carbon contributes ~6% at T0 and up to 11% at T1 to submicron particle light 384 absorption at 450 nm; if the actual AAE_{BC} were >1, as possibly suggested by the $AAE_{532-660}$ measurements 385 at both sites, then the attributed brown carbon fraction would be even smaller. These relatively minor contributions from brown carbon are consistent with the conclusions of Cappa et al. (2012) and indicate 386 387 that in this region the summertime submicron particulate light absorption is predominately from black 388 carbon.

389 There are two likely origins of the supermicron absorption: penetration of BC into the supermicron 390 size range, likely from coagulation of BC with larger particles or tailing of the predominately submicron 391 BC size distribution, or dust (assuming the observed supermicron absorption is not simply an experimental 392 artifact). Dust is known to contribute substantially to the PM_{10} burden in Sacramento, with sources including roadways, agricultural activity and disturbed open residential areas (California Air Resources 393 394 Board, 2005; http://www.arb.ca.gov/pm/pmmeasures/pmch05/pmch05.htm), as well as long range transport (Ewing et al., 2010). The single particle measurements from the SPLAT-II instrument at TO 395 396 indicate that both BC-containing and dust particles are observed in the supermicron size range, along with 397 substantial contributions from sea salt-containing particles that are likely of marine origin (Figure S5). 398 The PALMS instrument detected similar particle types at the T1 site (Zaveri et al., 2012) Although 399 informative, these measurements unfortunately cannot be used to quantitatively assess the relative 400 contributions of the different absorbing particle types to the supermicron absorption because both 401 instruments sample only over a subset of the entire supermicron size range, e.g. the SPLAT-II only up to 402 $d_{\rm v,a} \sim 2 \,\mu {\rm m}$. Nonetheless, the single particle composition measurements provide support for the likely 403 origin of the supermicron absorption being from either BC penetration or dust.

404 Dust and BC should be distinguishable based on the observed spectral properties and chemical 405 composition. Although the optical properties of dust vary by location and source, dust is generally thought





406 to have AAE values > 1, with typical reported values of \sim 1.5-3 (Yang et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010; 407 Bahadur et al., 2012), larger than is typically observed for black carbon. The measured average AAE_{super} values were typically greater than unity and larger than the AAE_{PM1} (Table 2), suggestive of a dust 408 409 influence. However, there are two important points to consider. First, although the AAE_{super} values were 410 approximately normally distributed, the distributions were substantially broader than the distributions for 411 the submicron particles, with a range of about $0.5 < AAE_{super} < 3$ (Figure 4). Second, the AAE_{super} values 412 exhibited a notable wavelength-pair dependence, with the largest values observed for the 450-532 nm pair 413 and the smallest for the 532-660 nm pair and where the wavelength-dependence at T0 was much larger 414 than at T1 (Table 2; Figure 4). The large spread in the AAE_{super} values may reflect the small magnitudes of 415 the absolute $b_{abs,super}$ values and the use of the difference method to determine the $b_{abs,super}$ (i.e. noise), but could also indicate a greater diversity in AAE_{super} values compared to AAE_{PM1} due to, perhaps, time-416 417 varying contributions from dust and BC. As a test, if the averaged AAE_{PM1} values are restricted to periods when the absolute absorption was relatively low (< 0.6 Mm^{-1}), but still generally larger than the $b_{\mathrm{abs,super}}$, 418 419 there is no substantial additional broadening of the distribution. This suggests that the broadening of 420 AAE_{super} may be real and that the latter interpretation—diversity in individual AAE_{super} values—may be 421 appropriate. However, since there were insufficient periods where the $b_{abs,PM1}$ values were as low as the 422 $b_{\rm abs, super}$, changes in the shape of the $AAE_{\rm PM1}$ distribution cannot be assessed under the exact same 423 conditions, and thus the possibility that the greater scatter simply reflects the low b_{abs,PM10} values cannot 424 be ruled out. (The 0.6 Mm^{-1} threshold was chosen to allow for a sufficient number of AAE_{PM1} values to 425 remain to be used to develop a histogram.) Also, if one considers the relationship between AAE_{PM10} and the $f_{sca,PM1}$, there is no obvious broadening of the AAE distribution at smaller values of $f_{sca,PM1}$. There is 426 427 also some indication of correlations between both $b_{abs,super}$ and $b_{abs,PM1}$ and between $b_{abs,super}$ and [BC] (as 428 measured by the SP2) (Figure 5). Although the correlation coefficients are relatively small ($r^2 = 0.45$ and 429 0.25 at T0 and T1, respectively), this could indicate contributions from penetration of BC into the 430 supermicron mode, which could help to explain why most of the AAE_{super} values are smaller than is typical 431 for pure dust but larger than for BC.

Further insight into the nature of the supermicron particles comes from consideration of the *MAC* and *MSC* values, which are intensive properties like the *AAE*. The *MAC* and *MSC* for supermicron particles have been assessed by comparing $b_{abs,super}$ and $b_{sca,super}$ with the supermicron mass concentration ([PM_{super}]) as estimated from the measured size distributions (Figure 6a-b). The [PM_{super}] values were estimated assuming a density of 2 g cm⁻³ and spherical particles. In theory, the *MSC* is size dependent, falling off rapidly from ~4 m² g⁻¹ to ~1.5 m² g⁻¹ in going from $d_{p,m} = 700$ to 1000 nm (with $d_{p,m} = 700$ nm corresponding approximately to $d_{p,a} = 1000$ nm when density = 2 g cm⁻³) and ranging from ~ 0.5 m² g⁻¹





439 to 1.5 m² g⁻¹ for larger particles (see Figure S6 and (Clarke et al., 2004)). Thus, smaller MSC values 440 generally correspond to overall larger particles. The observed MSC_{super} exhibit an inverse relationship with $d_{p,surf}$ for the supermicron particles (Figure 6e-f). To our knowledge, this is the first explicit 441 442 demonstration of the theoretically expected inverse relationship from ambient observations. These 443 observations indicate that the nature of the supermicron particle size distributions do vary with time, with 444 some time periods containing larger supermicron particles and some smaller. This variability in size 445 suggests variations in the supermicron particle sources, and consequently in the chemical nature of the 446 particles, discussed further below.

447 The relationship between $b_{abs,super}$ and [PM_{super}] exhibits a great deal of scatter (Figure 6c-d), most 448 likely due to the small values of $b_{abs,super}$ and to the variability in the PM_{super} sources, including particle 449 density and size. The MAC values at 532 nm for the supermicron particles range from ~0 to ~0.06 m² g⁻¹ 450 at both sites. Further, the MAC_{super} values exhibit a notable dependence on the $d_{p,surf}$ (Figure 6g-h). In 451 general, when $d_{p,surf}$ is on the small side (~2 µm) the MAC_{super} is very close to zero and it tends to increase 452 with $d_{p,surf}$. Apparently, the particles from sources that produced, on average, smaller supermicron particles were less absorbing than the particles from sources that produced larger particles. A plausible 453 454 explanation is that the larger particles are dust while the smaller (yet still supermicron) particles are a 455 combination of non-absorbing sea spray particles and other particle types that are penetrating from the 456 submicron mode. This hypothesis is generally supported by examination of HYSPLIT back trajectories 457 (Draxler and Rolph) for each day of the campaign (Figure S7), as well as by comparison with the source-458 region identification in Fast et al. (Fast et al., 2012), with smaller $d_{p,surf}$ values for the supermicron particles 459 generally corresponding to periods when the air masses were identified as containing a greater "Bay Area" 460 contribution. Considering three specific days as examples, two (11 and 16 June) when the MSC_{super} were 461 particularly small (corresponding to larger particles) and one (15 June) when the MSC_{super} were larger, 462 clear differences in the air mass origins can be seen. Specifically, the back trajectories on 11 and 16 June indicate that the air mass came from almost due north, consistent with a terrestrial origin for the particles 463 464 while the back trajectory on 15 June indicates that the air mass had passed over the San Francisco Bay 465 Area and before that came from along the CA coast. These back trajectories are generally consistent with 466 the idea that when the overall size distribution is skewed towards smaller supermicron particles (smaller $d_{p,surf}$ and larger MSC_{super}) the air masses are more impacted by sea spray particles, while when the size 467 468 distribution is skewed towards larger particles there is a greater relative dust contribution.

469 Even though the MAC_{super} exhibits a pronounced relationship with $d_{p,surf}$, there is actually minimal 470 dependence of $b_{abs,super}$ on $d_{p,surf}$ (Figure S8). There is, however, a relatively strong relationship between





471 $[PM_{super}]$ and $d_{p,surf}$, with larger $[PM_{super}]$ usually corresponding to smaller $d_{p,surf}$ (Figure S8). This suggests 472 that the small MAC_{super} values at small $d_{p,surf}$ result from substantial inputs of non-absorbing supermicron particles, which does not necessarily alter the observed babs, super but does serve to increase the [PMsuper], 473 474 thereby depressing the MAC_{super} values. The MAC_{super} is approximately 0.06 m² g⁻¹ when $d_{p,surf}$ is large 475 (i.e. >3.5 μ m; Figure 6). If it is assumed that the major contributor to supermicron absorption when $d_{p,surf}$ 476 is large is dust then a value for the imaginary refractive index (k) for dust in this region is estimated from 477 Mie theory. Assuming spherical particles with $d_p = 3.5 \,\mu m$ with density = 2 g cm⁻³ and a real refractive index of either 1.5 or 1.6, the k is ~0.0035i. However, this estimate assumes that all of the PM_{super} mass 478 is dust and that no other absorbing species contribute. If some of the PM_{super} mass is attributed to non-479 480 dust species, then the derived dust-specific MAC and k would be larger. Alternatively, if BC contributes 481 substantially to the observed supermicron absorption, which seems likely, then the dust-specific MAC and 482 k would be smaller. Most likely, the above values are upper-limits. Despite these uncertainties, the observed MAC and k are similar to reported estimates for dust in the Xianghe area in China, where MAC_{dust} 483 $= 0.048 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ at 520 nm and where the reported *MAC* has been adjusted to a density of 2.0 g cm⁻³ (Yang 484 et al., 2009). Overall, although the contribution of supermicron particles to the total absorption is small in 485 486 this region, it nonetheless must be considered.

487

3.1.3 Relationship between scattering and absorption

488 There has been increasing interest in the relationship between the absorption Angstrom exponent 489 and the scattering Ångstrom exponent (Yang et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010; Bahadur et al., 2012; Giles 490 et al., 2012; Cazorla et al., 2013; Costabile et al., 2013). The wide range of SAE values observed here 491 allows for assessment of the AAE vs. SAE relationship in a constrained environment. The observed AAE₅₃₂₋₆₆₀ vs. SAE₄₅₀₋₅₅₀ relationships for PM₁₀, submicron and supermicron particles are shown in Figure 492 493 7a-c. The observed AAE values at both sites fall in a fairly narrow range centered around 1.2 for PM_{10} and 494 submicron particles, with much greater scatter for supermicron particles, consistent with Figure 4. The 495 submicron SAE values are >1.8 and the supermicron SAE values are generally <0.2, while the PM₁₀ SAE 496 values span the range 0.3 - 2. The wide range of SAE values for PM₁₀ results from time-varying 497 contributions of supermicron and submicron particles to the total scattering.

498 Cazorla et al. (2013) previously proposed a classification scheme based on the position in the *AAE* 499 vs. *SAE* space (c.f. their Figure 1). They classified particles with AAE < 1 and SAE > 1.5 as "EC 499 dominated," and where EC stands for elemental carbon (which is approximately equivalent to BC 501 (Andreae and Gelencser, 2006; Lack et al., 2014)). Here, almost none of the observations fall in this space, 502 despite the submicron absorption being dominated by black carbon. Instead, the submicron measurements





503 fall primarily in the space encompassed by 1 < AAE < 1.5 and SAE > 2, which Cazorla et al. (2013) 504 classified as an "EC/OC mixture" and where an implicit assumption was that the OC (organic carbon) 505 was absorbing in nature (i.e. BrC), thus leading to the elevated AAE values compared to the "EC 506 dominated" region. These in situ measurements therefore suggest that the "EC/OC mixture" region should 507 better be classified as "EC dominated" (or equivalently "BC dominated"). These measurements indicate 508 that BrC contributions to submicron absorption can only be clearly identified if the AAE is well-above 509 1.5. Given that almost none of the submicron AAE values were < 1, the suggestion by Bahadur et al. 510 (2012) that a "low-end baseline" AAE value of 0.55 (\pm 0.24) that is related to "pure EC" seems unlikely 511 to be correct and is more likely a result of a subset of the data points considered in that study having large 512 uncertainties due to low signal levels. (Lower AAE values can be obtained if a wavelength pair is selected 513 in which the wavelengths differ substantially and there is curvature in the b_{abs} vs. wavelength relationship 514 (Bergstrom et al., 2007).) This conclusion is consistent with that of (Russell et al., 2010) and with the in 515 situ observations of (Yang et al., 2009) and the remote sensing observations of (Giles et al., 2012).

516 Cazorla et al. (2013) also classified particles having 1 < AAE < 1.5 and SAE < 1 as being a "Dust/EC 517 mix", and those with AAE < 1 and SAE < 1 as being "Coated large particles." As the supermicron 518 contribution to scattering increases (and the SAE decreases), the observed AAE values, at T1 especially, 519 do not strongly deviate from the 1-1.5 range. The supermicron particles sampled here were a mixture of 520 sea spray and dust in varying amounts. This therefore suggests that the "Dust/EC mix" regime should be 521 reclassified to be more general, as it is not specific to "dust," only to "large particle/BC mixtures." The 522 measurements suggest that dust contributions can only be clearly elucidated when the AAE > 1.5, although 523 even when such large AAE values are observed care must be taken if the absolute absorption values are 524 small (as is the case here for supermicron particles), corresponding to individual AAE values with 525 substantial uncertainties. Similar caution is suggested for identification of particles in the "Coated large 526 particle" regime, as classified by Cazorla et al. (2013). The in situ measurements here suggest that 527 observations that fall within this regime are likely the result of measurement uncertainties due to low 528 signal levels, and do not correspond to the presence of "Coated large particles." Based on the observations 529 here, a new classification scheme using the AAE and SAE relationship is proposed (Figure 7d).

530 3.1.3 Light backscattering

531 The extent to which particles scatter light in the backward versus forward direction has an important 532 controlling influence on their climate impacts (Haywood and Shine, 1995). The backscatter fractions at 533 550 nm for PM₁₀, $f_{bsca,550,PM10}$, measured by the nephelometer ranged from 0.1 to 0.23, with an average 534 value of 0.137 ± 0.024 for T0 and 0.155 ± 0.054 for T1. These correspond to a g_{sca} range for PM₁₀ of 0.40





535 to 0.67 and mean values of 0.57 ± 0.056 for T0 and 0.53 ± 0.054 for T1. This range of observed values is 536 comparable to measurements made at other locations (Andrews et al., 2006), but the averages are 537 somewhat smaller than g_{sca} values calculated by Kassianov et al. (2012) at 500 nm for the T0 and T1 sites 538 (both $g_{sca,500} = 0.65$). The observed g_{sca} versus $f_{sca,PM1}$ relationship is shown in Figure 8b,c for T0 and T1. 539 There is some general decrease in g_{sca} when $f_{sca,PM1}$ increases at both sites, more clearly at T1 than at T0, 540 but at both sites there is substantial scatter in the data. Some of this scatter appears to be driven by 541 variations in the size of the submicron mode, as characterized by $d_{p,surf,PM1}$. In general, for a given $f_{sca,PM1}$ 542 the observed g_{sca} values are smaller when $d_{p,surf,PM1}$ is smaller.

543 This observed behavior is generally consistent with theoretical expectations. The theoretical 544 relationship between g_{sca} and particle size for spherical particles is shown in Figure 8a. The calculated g_{sca} 545 increases nearly monotonically for diameters up to about 500 nm, reaching $g_{sca} \sim 0.75$. In the supermicron 546 range above 1.5 μ m the g_{sca} is relatively constant around 0.75. In between 500 nm and 1.5 μ m, the g_{sca} 547 exhibits a more complicated dependence on size. The steepness of the g_{sca} versus d_p relationship between 548 100 and 500 nm means that the observed g_{sca} for PM₁₀ will be particularly sensitive to variations in the 549 submicron particle size distribution. However, the g_{sca} will be less sensitive to variations in the supermicron particle size distribution because the d_p versus g_{sca} relationship is generally flatter. Further, 550 551 we might expect some relationship between g_{sca} and the fraction of scattering due to sub- or supermicron 552 particles to the extent that the two size regimes have generally distinct g_{sca} values. Indeed, such behavior 553 is seen in the observations, in large part because the $d_{p,surf,PM1}$ values vary within the sensitive range (100-500 nm). 554

555 Therefore, in an effort to account for this apparent co-dependence of g_{sca} on $f_{sca,PM1}$ and $d_{p,surf,PM1}$, 556 the $f_{sca,PM1}$ values have been divided by the $d_{p,surf,PM1}$ values, with the ratio indicated as R_g . There is, in 557 general, a much stronger relationship between the g_{sca} values and R_g (Figure 8d,e) than there is with $f_{sca,PM1}$ 558 alone, and much of the residual scatter seems to be driven by variations in the supermicron size 559 distribution. Linear fits give $g_{sca} = -38.5R_g + 0.66$ for T0 ($r^2 = 0.51$) and $g_{sca} = -51.5R_g + 0.66$ for T1 ($r^2 = 0.51$) 560 0.71), and where $d_{p,surf,PM1}$ is in nm. Overall, the observations here demonstrate that the observable backscatter coefficients depend importantly on the relative contributions of sub-versus supermicron 561 particles to the total scattering, but that the specific relationship between backscatter and the sub- or 562 563 supermicron scattering fraction is obscured by variations in the size distribution within each size range. 564 However, the greatest sensitivity of g_{sca} is found for size variations within the submicron size range.





565 **3.2 Influence of heating on optical properties**

At the T0 site, the UCD CRD and PAS instruments sampled alternately dried, ambient particles ($PM_{2.5}$) or particles that had been passed through a thermodenuder (TD) that was held at 225 °C during the study. As particles pass through the TD, some materials evaporate, including ammonium nitrate, ammonium sulfate and many organics, while others do not, including black carbon, dust and sea salt. Loss of these materials leads to changes in the optical properties, including the particle optically-weighted hygroscopicity. The influence of heating on the optical properties is used here to further probe the particle composition.

573 The observed fraction of extinction remaining after heating, $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$, for PM_{2.5} varied from ~0.15 to 574 0.6, suggesting a wide range of particle volatility. This variability is strongly linked to the relative 575 contribution of sub- versus supermicron particles to the observed extinction; an approximately linear 576 relationship (with a positive slope) between $f_{ext,TD}$ and the EAE measured for the ambient particles was 577 observed (Figure 9). This increase in $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ with decreasing *EAE* suggests that the supermicron 578 components are mostly non-volatile, consistent with a likely dust or sea salt contribution as identified 579 above. Further, this suggests that $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ can be used as an indicator of particle size in the current study. 580 There is a cluster of points at the highest $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ (the light green points in Figure 9) that were observed 581 during a specific overnight period when we suspect that the site was briefly impacted by large particles 582 produced as part of local road resurfacing.

583 The bulk particle hygroscopicity, characterized by γ_{RH} , did not vary monotonically with $f_{ext,TD}$ 584 (Figure 10a). This is because the observed hygroscopicity depends on compositional variability within both the sub- and supermicron modes (Atkinson et al., 2015). However, the change in the hygroscopicity 585 586 upon heating, $\Delta \gamma_{RH} = \gamma_{RH,ambient} - \gamma_{RH,TD}$, does exhibit a clear correlation with $f_{ext,TD}$, with larger $\Delta \gamma_{RH}$ 587 corresponding to smaller $f_{ext,TD}$, i.e. for smaller, typically more volatile particles (Figure 10b). The 588 observed $\Delta \gamma_{RH}$ appear to cross over zero around $f_{ext,TD} = 0.4$. Apparently, for smaller particles that exhibit greater overall mass loss upon heating, the γ_{RH} tends to decrease with heating. This is as might be 589 expected, since one key residual component will be non-hygroscopic BC when the distribution is 590 591 dominated by smaller particles. However, when the distribution is dominated by larger particles, 592 evaporation leads to the residual particles appearing, on average, slightly more hygroscopic. This suggests 593 that the supermicron components that are susceptible to evaporation are lower-hygroscopicity material, 594 most likely organics but also, potentially, inorganics such as sulfate and nitrate, which have lower 595 hygroscopicity than sodium chloride. Some of the sea salt-containing particles observed during CARES 596 were found to be internally mixed with organics (likely organic acids) that displaced chloride (Laskin et





al., 2012), and organic salts are generally less hygroscopic than sea salt (Drozd et al., 2014). It is possible
that these organics evaporated in the TD, leaving behind more hygroscopic material, although such a
hypothesis requires further investigation.

600 The contribution to the total light absorption from non-BC materials that evaporate in the TD was 601 characterized by the absorption enhancement, E_{abs} , which is here taken as the ratio between the ambient 602 and thermodenuded b_{abs} . We have previously investigated the dependence of E_{abs} on photochemical age 603 at CARES using the same data set as is being considered here, and separately the dependence on the 604 relative amount of "coating" (non-BC) material that is internally mixed with BC at the CalNex field study 605 (Cappa et al., 2012). It was found that the E_{abs} increases by only a small amount as PCA and coating 606 amount increased. Here, we see that E_{abs} exhibits some slight dependence on $f_{ext,TD}$, with somewhat larger 607 values observed at smaller $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ (Figure 10c,d). It is difficult to establish whether this dependence 608 indicates that larger E_{abs} would have been observed in Cappa et al. (2012) for the CARES dataset had 609 more material evaporated, but given that the $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ here is determined predominately by changes in the 610 relative contributions from sub- and supermicron particles this seems unlikely. (The complementary 611 measurements from CalNex were for PM1, not PM2.5 as here, and thus the influence of supermicron 612 particles on the observations was substantially smaller during that study. For reference, the CalNex 613 campaign-average submicron SAE for the 450-550 nm pair was 2.1. Thus, the conclusions here for the 614 CARES dataset are not necessarily applicable to the interpretation of the CalNex dataset.) Further, a fit 615 of the mean binned values of E_{abs} extrapolated to $f_{ext,TD} = 0$ gives only $E_{abs} = 1.14 (\pm 0.02)$ and 1.29 (± 0.06) 616 at 532 nm and 405 nm, respectively, suggesting that substantially larger values than the observed range would not have been likely had a greater extent of evaporation been observed. The larger extrapolated 617 618 value at 405 nm than at 532 nm is consistent with a small contribution from so-called "brown carbon," 619 which has an absorption spectrum that strongly increases towards shorter wavelengths, to the observed 620 absorption.

621 The particle single scatter albedo exhibits a non-monotonic dependence on $f_{ext,TD}$ at both 532 nm 622 and 405 nm (Figure 10e,f). On average, the ambient SSA values are at a minimum of 0.85 around $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ 623 = 0.35. The SSA then increases at either larger or smaller $f_{ext,TD}$. The increase in SSA towards smaller 624 $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ likely reflects an increasing contribution of secondary aerosol species within the submicron mode 625 (e.g. organics, ammonium sulfate, ammonium nitrate) relative to BC, leading the overall particulates to 626 appear both more volatile and more scattering. Indeed, HR-AMS measurements indicate that secondary 627 inorganic and organic species are dominant components of the submicron particles in the Sacramento and 628 Sierra Nevada foothill region during CARES (Setyan et al., 2012; Shilling et al., 2013). The increase in





629 SSA towards larger $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ likely results from the increasing contribution of non-volatile sea salt and dust 630 components within the supermicron mode that are either non- or very weakly absorbing. Looking at the change in SSA upon heating in the TD, Δ SSA, there is a clear increase in Δ SSA with decreasing $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$ 631 (Figure 10g,h). This is as expected because if material does not evaporate then no change in SSA should 632 633 be observed. The Δ SSA linearly extrapolated to $f_{\text{ext,TD}} = 0$ is 0.46 (±0.02) and 0.50 (±0.02) at 532 nm and 634 405 nm, respectively, corresponding to absolute extrapolated SSA values of ~0.4 given the observed 635 ambient particle SSA values. (Linear extrapolation to zero is not fully justifiable because the $f_{ext,TD}$ cannot go to zero if there is some BC around and because there appears to be some flattening off in the Δ SSA 636 637 values at smaller $f_{\text{ext,TD}}$. Nonetheless, it can provide an estimate in the limit of small BC contributions.) These extrapolated SSA values are relatively large compared to some laboratory observations for "fresh" 638 639 BC particles that are produced, for example, from flames (Cross et al., 2010) or gasoline or diesel vehicles 640 (Schnaiter et al., 2005; Forestieri et al., 2013) and that have little intrinsic organic material, but slightly 641 smaller than that reported by one other laboratory study on flame-generated soot (Radney et al., 2014). 642 Primary emitted BC has a fractal-like structure that is thought to collapse over time through atmospheric 643 ageing processes. This change in shape due to collapse is thought to lead to an increase in the SSA, 644 separate from any contributions from scattering coating materials (Chakrabarty et al., 2014). That the 645 extrapolated SSA values are larger than many of the laboratory studies on fresh BC suggests that the 646 sampled particles were somewhat collapsed compared to their emitted state.

647 For the period where the TO site was impacted by particles emitted from local road surfacing 648 activities (e.g. asphalt), the ambient SSA values are small and the Δ SSA values deviate from the general 649 relationship observed for other periods. In fact, the absolute SSA measured for thermodenuded particles 650 during this particular period are around zero at 405 nm but ~0.2 at 532 nm. Such very small SSA values 651 suggest that absorption is dominated by very small particles, or at least particles that are agglomerates of 652 very small spherules; the surface area-weighted size distribution measured during this period peaked 653 around 300 nm diameter and the SP2 BC particle size distributions clearly indicate that the overall BC 654 particle size was larger during the asphalt-impacted period (Figure S9), suggesting that agglomerates of 655 small spherules is most plausible. We cannot entirely rule out the possibility that the measurements during 656 this period were strongly impacted by some absorbing gas-phase species (e.g. NO₂), confounding the SSA 657 measurements, although there was no evidence of gas-phase absorption in the background CRD channels 658 during this period suggesting that this is unlikely.





659 **4** Conclusions

660 Optical property measurements of PM_1 , $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} made during the CARES 2010 field study 661 have been examined to develop understanding of the relationships between various intensive properties 662 and to establish differences in behavior between sub- and supermicron PM. Measurements were made at 663 two sites in the Sacramento region, one urban (T0) and one more rural (T1) but impacted by the urban 664 outflow on most days under southwesterly flow conditions (Fast et al., 2012). At both sites, there is a 665 strong contribution of supermicron particles to the total scattering, averaging around 50% at both sites. 666 The source of these supermicron particles appears to be a combination of local dust and sea spray, along 667 with some contributions from penetration of traditionally submicron particles into the supermicron mode. 668 The specific contributions of any of these supermicron particle sources varies with time and depends on 669 the prevailing transport patterns with, perhaps not surprisingly, generally larger sea spray contributions 670 when air masses have been transported from the San Francisco Bay Area. The measured scattering 671 Ångstrom exponents (SAE) for PM_{10} are strongly correlated with the submicron versus supermicron 672 fraction of the total scattering, with similar linear relationships observed at both sites. This relationship 673 held despite there being variations in the size distributions within a given mode, which can theoretically 674 alter the SAE. This suggests that the relationships determined here are quite general, and that the SAE can 675 be used to quantitatively attribute scattering to sub- and supermicron particles. There was no notable dependence of the absorption Ångstrom exponent (AAE) on SAE for PM_{10} , and these observations were 676 677 used to propose an updated particle classification scheme based on the relationship between these two 678 parameters.

679 The influence of photochemical processing on the sub-versus supermicron contribution to scattering 680 differed between the two sites, with photochemical processing leading to an increase in the submicron 681 fraction of scattering for the T0 (urban) site but minimal change, or even a slight decrease, at the T1 682 (downwind) site. This reflects in part the strong daytime peak in photochemical age at the T0 site in 683 contrast to the more gradual increase at the T1 site, coupled with the much stronger diurnal profile in the wind speed, with a daytime peak, at the T1 site. Consequently, at the T1 site, photochemical production 684 685 of secondary PM was spread over a wider range of times due to transport and was countered through 686 local, temporally similar increases in dust production due to the higher daytime winds. At the T0 site, the strong photochemical production of secondary PM led to a clear increase in the submicron fraction of 687 688 scattering with photochemical ageing.

689 The mass scattering coefficient for the supermicron particles varied inversely with the median 690 surface-weighted particle diameter ($d_{p,surf}$) of the supermicron mode, in general accordance with





691 theoretical expectations. This indicates clear temporal variability in the nature of the supermicron particle 692 sources, which seem to be coupled to the prevailing wind direction or air mass history, as established 693 through consideration of back trajectories. Light absorption was dominated by submicron particles, 694 although there was some contribution from the supermicron particles. The mass absorption coefficient for supermicron particles exhibited a clear dependence on the supermicron $d_{p,surf}$, most likely due to variations 695 696 in the relative contributions of non-absorbing sea spray particles, penetration of BC from the submicron 697 mode, and very weak absorption by supermicron dust particles. Particle backscatter was found to be 698 related to the relative fractions of sub- versus supermicron scattering, but with an additional sensitivity to variations in the size distribution within the submicron size range. The susceptibility of the particles to 699 700 heating in a thermodenuder depended explicitly on the contribution of supermicron particles to the PM_{2.5} 701 extinction, most likely because a large fraction of the supermicron particles were either essentially non-702 volatile sea spray or dust particles. Heating in general led to an increase in the average particle 703 hygroscopicity and a decrease in the single scatter albedo. These together indicate that the residual 704 particles are likely a combination of absorbing submicron BC and somewhat hygroscopic supermicron 705 sea spray and less hygroscopic dust. The results presented here demonstrate that optical property 706 measurements can be used to assess likely chemical differences in the contributing particle types, and thus 707 to identify key PM sources.

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1006 Table 1. Table of instrumentation.

Instrument	Property Measured	Site
UCD Photoacoustic Spectrometer (PAS) ^a	Dry $PM_{2.5}$ light absorption at 405 nm and 532 nm	T0
UCD Cavity Ringdown Spectrometer (CRDS) ^a	Dry PM _{2.5} light extinction at 405 nm and 532 nm; humidified particle extinction at 532 nm	Т0
Particle Soot Absorption Photometer (PSAP) ^b	Dry PM_1 and PM_{10} light absorption at 470, 532 and 660 nm	T0, T1
Nephelometer ^b	Dry PM_1 and PM_{10} light scattering at 450, 550 and 700 nm	T0, T1
Aerodyne High Resolution Time of Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS)	Non-refractory PM ₁ composition (NR-PM ₁); Organic aerosol types through positive matrix factor analysis	T0, T1
PNNL Single Particle Laser Ablation Time of Flight Mass Spectrometer (SPLAT-II)	Single particle composition and identification for $PM_{0.05}$ - PM_2 (optimized for $PM_{0.1-0.6}$)	Т0
Particle Ablation Laser- desorption Mass Spectrometer (PALMS)	Single particle composition and identification for $PM_{0.15}$ - PM_2	T1
Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2)	Refractory black carbon (rBC) number and mass concentration and size distributions	T0, T1
Scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS)	PM ₁ particle mobility size distributions	T0, T1
Aerodynamic particle sizer (APS)	$PM_{0.7}$ - PM_{10} aerodynamic size distributions	T0, T1
NO _x chemiluminescence	$NO + NO_2$ (gas-phase)	Т0
NO _y by thermal conversion and chemiluminescence	Nitrogen oxides (NO + NO ₂ + HNO ₃ + alkyl nitrates + peroxy nitrates)	T0
Proton Transfer Reaction Mass Spectrometer (PTR-MS)	Concentrations of select volatile organic compounds (specifically, benzene and toluene)	T0, T1

^aThese instruments sampled either ambient particles or particles that had been thermodenuded at 225 °C, switching on a 2.5 or 5 minute cycle ^b These instruments alternately sampled PM₁ or PM₁₀ on a 6 minute cycle

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1009 **Table 2.** Campaign average optical properties at T0 and T1 for submicron and supermicron particles.

		TO		T1	
Property	PM_1	PM _{2.5}	supermicron ⁺	PM_1	supermicron ⁺
$b_{ m sca,450}$	12.9 Mm ⁻¹		10.7 Mm ⁻¹	12.7 Mm ⁻¹	6.6 Mm ⁻¹
$b_{ m sca,550}$	7.9 Mm ⁻¹		10.9 Mm ⁻¹	7.6 Mm ⁻¹	6.8 Mm ⁻¹
$b_{ m sca,700}$	4.2 Mm ⁻¹		10.9 Mm ⁻¹	3.4 Mm ⁻¹	6.8 Mm ⁻¹
$b_{ m abs,470}$	2.3 Mm ⁻¹		0.31 Mm ⁻¹	1.45 Mm ⁻¹	0.26 Mm ⁻¹
$b_{ m abs,530}$	1.9 Mm ⁻¹		0.25 Mm ⁻¹	1.25 Mm ⁻¹	0.20 Mm ⁻¹
$b_{ m abs,660}$	1.5 Mm ⁻¹		0.19 Mm ⁻¹	0.95 Mm ⁻¹	0.14 Mm ⁻¹
$b_{\mathrm{ext},405}$		27.0 Mm ⁻¹			
$b_{\text{ext},532}$		18.0 Mm ⁻¹			
$b_{ m abs,405}$		2.8 Mm ⁻¹			
$b_{ m abs,532}$		2.1 Mm ⁻¹			
$AAE_{470-532}^{\#}$	1.21 ± 0.18		1.93 ± 0.83	1.22 ± 0.33	2.03 ± 1.04
$AAE_{470-660}^{\#}$	1.17 ± 0.11		1.54 ± 0.50	1.28 ± 0.22	1.76 ± 0.69
$AAE_{532-660}^{\#}$	1.15 ± 0.12		1.30 ± 0.52	1.28 ± 0.21	1.68 ± 0.77
$AAE_{405-532}^{\#}$		1.3 ± 0.9			
$SAE_{450-550}^{*}$	2.42 ± 0.38		-0.13 ± 0.31	2.58 ± 0.27	-0.15 ± 0.34
$EAE_{405-532}^{*}$		1.53 ± 0.5			

 $^+$ Values for supermicron particles are calculated as the difference between PM₁₀ and PM₁.

[#] The reported uncertainties were determined from fitting a histogram of the observed values to a Gaussian distribution and are the 1σ spread.

* The reported uncertainties are 1σ standard deviations.

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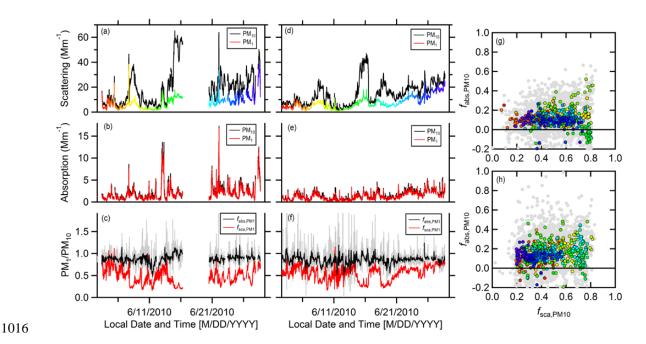
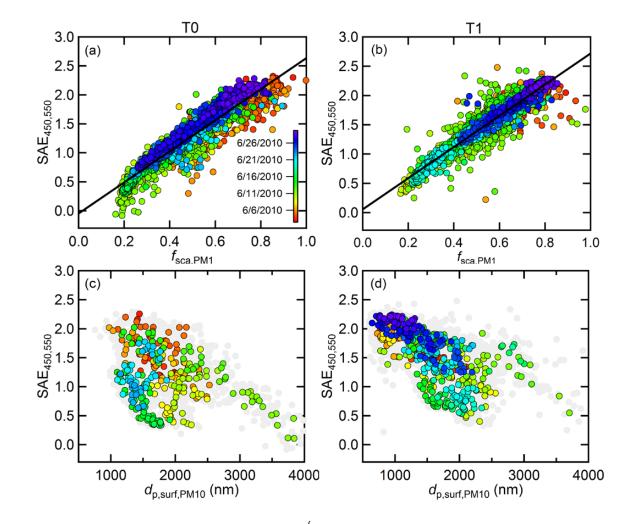


Figure 1. Time-series of PM₁ and PM₁₀ scattering (a and d) and absorption (b and e) coefficients at 550 nm for T0 (left panels) and T1 (right panels). Values for PM₁₀ are shown as black lines and for PM₁ as colored lines. The ratio between PM₁ and PM₁₀ scattering (red) and absorption (black) are shown in panels c and f. (For absorption, the data have been further averaged to 1 hour; the higher time resolution data are shown as gray.) The co-variation between $f_{abs,PM10}$ and $f_{sca,PM10}$ for T0 (g) and T1 (h) are also shown. The 1-hr averaged points are colored according to time during the campaign, and correspond to the time-series in panels a and d; the gray points are the data at higher time-resolution.





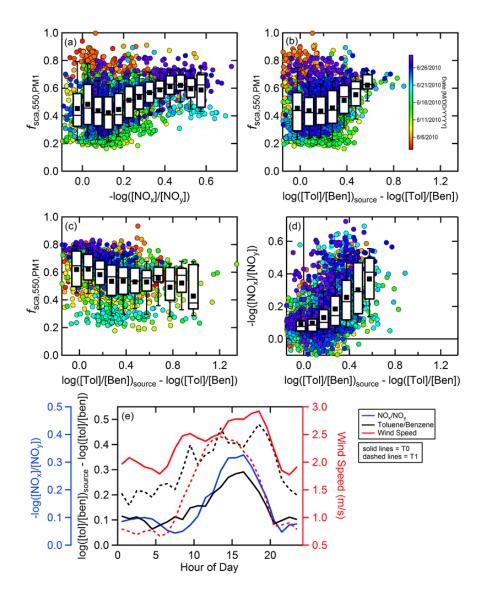


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Figure 2. (a,b) The relationship between the scattering Ångstrom exponent for the 450-550 nm pairs and the $f_{\text{sca,PM1}}$ for both T0 (left panels) and T1 (right panels). (c,d) The relationship between the SAE and the median surface-weighted diameter for PM₁₀. The points in all graphs are colored according to time during the campaign (see legend). For panels (a,b) data at 10 min resolution are shown, while in panels (c,d) the colored points are for data averaged to 1 h and the gray points are for 10 min data. The fewer colored points in panel (c) is the result of a malfunction of the APS after 22 June 2010, which precludes calculation of $d_{p,surf,PM10}$.





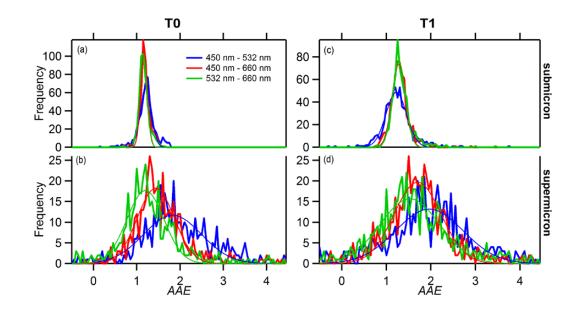


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Figure 3. Submicron fraction of scattering for the T0 and T1 sites as a function of photochemical age proxies. Observations at T0 using the (a) NO_x/NO_y ratio and the (b) toluene/benzene ratio and at T1 for the (c) toluene/benzene ratio as the PCA proxy. Individual measurements (averaged to 10 minutes) are colored by time. (d) The relationship between the two PCA estimation methods at T0. (e) The diurnal variation in the PCA estimation methods and the measured wind speed for T0 (solid lines) and T1 (dashed lines). Box and whisker plots show the median (line), mean (square) upper and lower quartile (box) and 10th and 90th percentile (whiskers).







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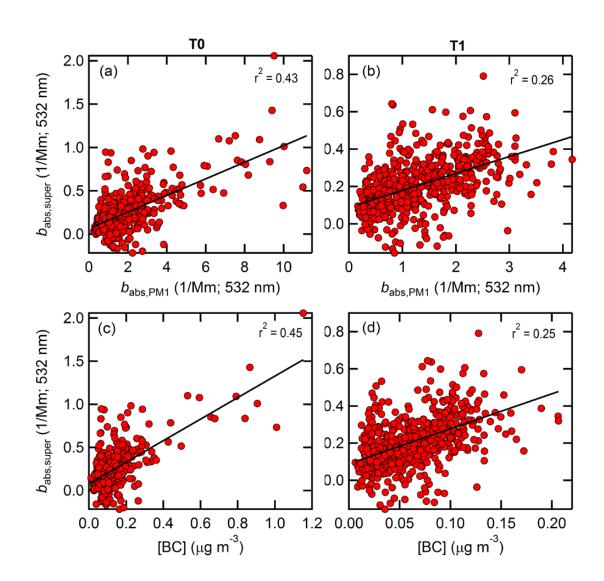
Figure 4. Histograms of the measured AAE values for various wavelength pairs for submicron (top; a and c) and supermicron (bottom; b and d) particles at the T0 (left) and T1 (right) sites. The different colors correspond to different wavelength pairs (see legend). The thick lines correspond to the observations while the thin lines show the results from fitting of the distributions to a Gaussian function.





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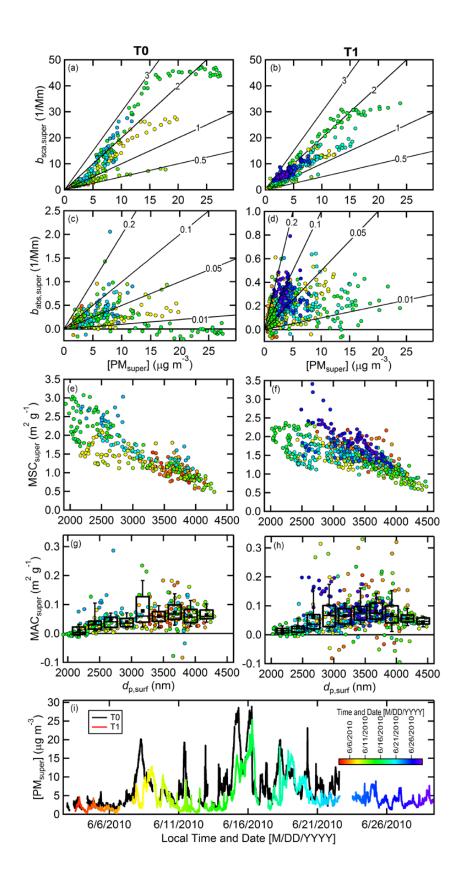


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Figure 5. Co-variation of the supermicron absorption at T0 (left panels) and T1 (right panels) with the submicron absorption (top panels) and with black carbon concentration (bottom panels). Note that negative values of $b_{abs,super}$ result from this being derived from the difference between $b_{abs,PM10}$ and $b_{abs,PM1}$.









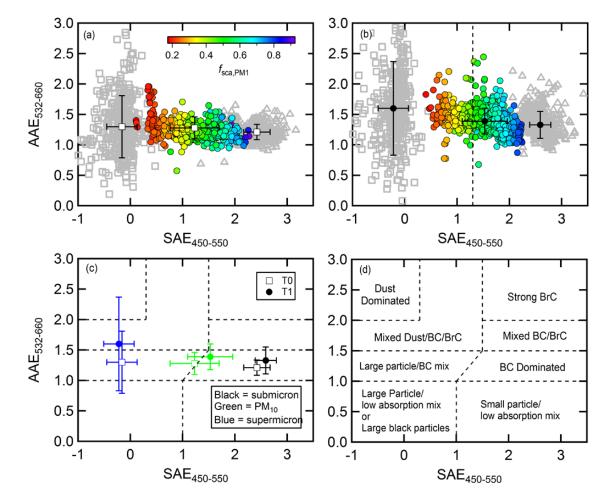


1059 Figure 6. (a,b) Scatter plot between b_{sca,super} at 532 nm and [PM_{super}] for (left panels) T0 and (right panels) 1060 T1. The lines correspond to different MSC values (in $m^2 g^{-1}$). (c,d) Scatter plot between $b_{abs,super}$ at 532 nm and [PM_{super}]. The lines correspond to different MAC values (in m² g⁻¹). (e,f) The relationship between 1-1061 1062 hr average MSC values and the surface area weighted mean diameter, $d_{p,surf}$ at the two sites. (g,h) The 1063 relationship between 1-hr average MAC values and $d_{p,surf}$ at the two sites. The individual 1-hr average data 1064 points are shown overlaid by box-and-whisker plots showing the mean (**■**), median (-), lower and upper quartile (boxes), and 9th and 91st percentile (whiskers). The points in panels a-h are colored according to 1065 time, and correspond to the colors in the bottom figure and color scale. (i) Time series of the supermicron 1066 1067 particle mass concentration for T0 and T1. T0 values are black lines, and T1 values are colored according 1068 to time.

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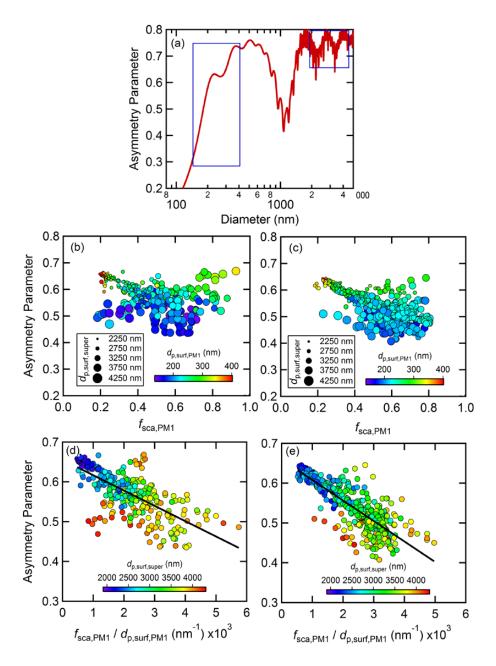
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1072Figure 7. Observed relationship between the AAE (532-600 nm pair) and the SAE (450-550 nm pair) for1073 PM_{10} (colored circles), submicron (open grey triangles) and supermicron (open grey squares) particles1074for the (a) T0 and (b) T1 sites. (c) Comparison between the PM_{10} (green), submicron (black) and1075supermicron (blue) particle averages between the T0 (filled circles) and T1 (open squares) sites. (d) An

alternate classification scheme to that suggested by Cazorla et al. (2013).







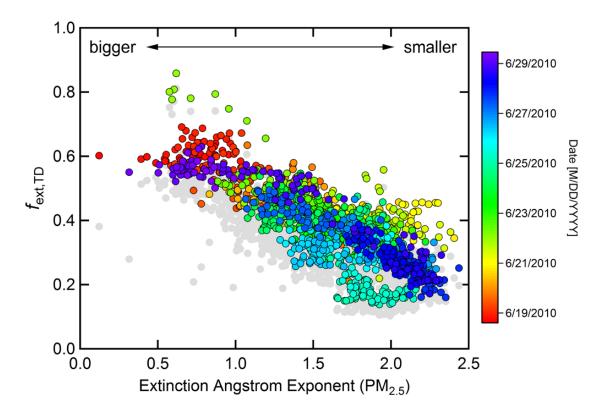


1079 **Figure 8.** (a) Theoretical variation in the asymmetry parameter, g_{sca} , with particle diameter, assuming 1080 spherical particles with RI = 1.5 + 0.0*i*. The blue boxes indicate the range of $d_{p,surf}$ values observed for 1081 submicron and supermicron particles. (b,c) The observed dependence of g_{sca} on $f_{sca,PM1}$ for (b) T0 and (c) 1082 T1. The points are colored according to $d_{p,surf,PM1}$ and the point size corresponds to $d_{p,surf,super}$. (d,e) The 1083 relationship between g_{sca} and $R_g = f_{sca,PM1}/d_{p,surf,PM1}$ for (d) T0 and (e) T1. The points are colored 1084 according to $d_{p,surf,super}$.





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Figure 9. Variation of the extinction fraction remaining at 532 nm (colored points) and 405 nm (gray
points) as a function of the observed ambient particle extinction Ångstrom exponent for PM_{2.5}. The points
are colored by date.

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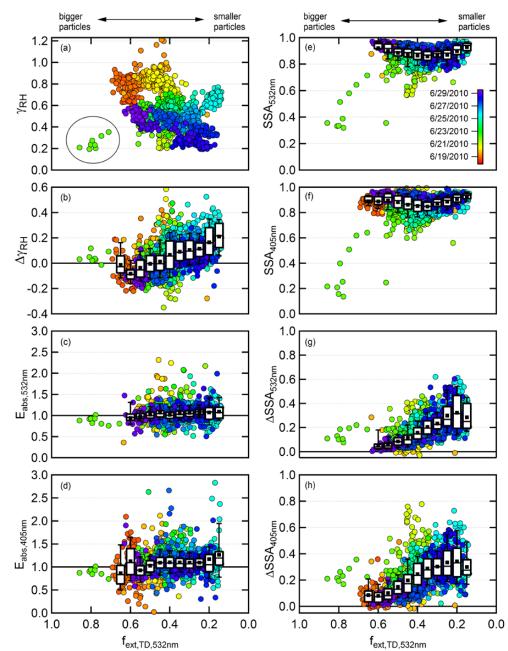


Figure 10. Dependence of various intensive parameters on the fraction of extinction remaining after heating in the thermodenuder. Data are shown for (a) the absolute γ_{RH} , (b) the change in γ_{RH} (c) the absorption enhancement at 532 nm, (d) the absorption enhancement at 405 nm, (e) the SSA at 532 nm, (f) the SSA at 405 nm, (g) the change in SSA at 532 nm and (h) the change in SSA at 405 nm. The points are colored by time. The circled points in (a) show the period that was impacted by local road resurfacing activities.